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ABSTRACT

This booklet is about what people say and do with regard to citizen participation. Explanations and key resources are provided for eleven techniques to obtain citizen participation: Alinsky Organizations, charrettes, citizen advisory committees, community audio and video access, community development corporations, community resource/information centers, community schools, neighborhood associations and councils, parent involvement councils, self-help groups, and user consultation process. Additionally, brief descriptions are provided for fourteen other methods. The booklet concludes with thirty statements or short paragraphs from researchers, theorists, and practitioners about community involvement and participation and a list of ten critical questions on citizen participation. (EM)

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CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

WHAT OTHERS SAY . . .
WHAT OTHERS DO . . .

By John W. Warden

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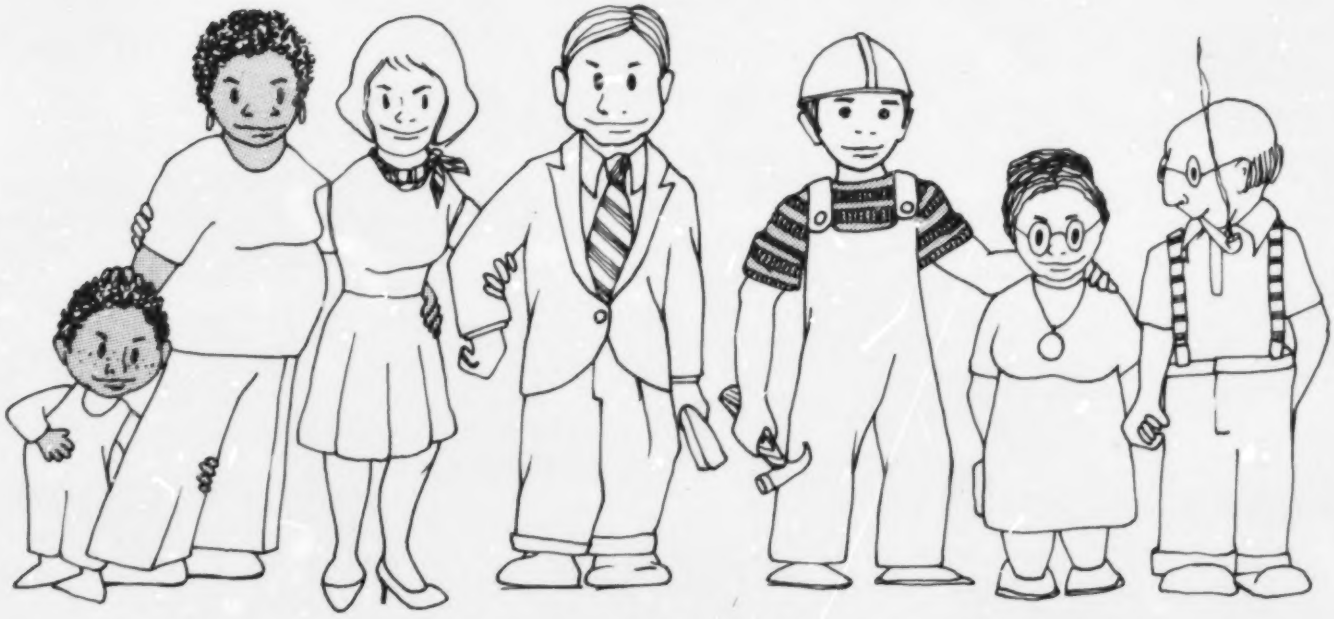
As the title of this booklet suggests, this publication is about what people say and do with regard to citizen participation. The first half of the publication explains various citizen participation vehicles in some detail along with key references and a few quotations. The latter half is divided into still more participation vehicles and a host of other statements about citizen participation. The result is a publication on twenty-five different participation vehicles, over forty key references and plenty of quotations concerning citizen participation. So let's get on with it. . . .



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ALINKSY ORGANIZATIONS

For nearly thirty years the late Saul Alinksy was an outspoken organizer traveling throughout the country organizing groups of people in a particular style of organization which has now become associated with his name. No one knows how many Alinsky style organizations exist but four such examples can be found in Chicago alone. Best known of these organizations is perhaps Woodlawn Organization (TWO) which Alinsky nurtured in a Chicago slum.

Alinsky community organizations are problem-oriented. According to Alinsky, the organization is born out of the issues and the issues are born out of the organization. Organizations are therefore built on issues that are specific, immediate and realizable. A single large community organization is thus composed of other organizations in a sort of confederation which sends delegates to meetings at the community organization. Membership is therefore not extended to individuals but rather to organizations which are drawn from block clubs, church groups, tenants, public education, youth, business and others. Member organizations form a congress and senate which in turn elects officers, establishes committees, hires staff, etc. The specific community organizations and action projects vary from year to year and community to community.

The use of confrontation and conflict as an organizing tactic is an integral part of an Alinsky organization. Community activists become comfortable and adept at handling themselves in conflict situations. Conflict is viewed not in avoidance terms but rather as a constructive process which can help people achieve their goals. Conflict is thus utilized to disrupt social stability and renegotiate a compromise more favorable to the organization.

Alinsky organizations develop a broad-base funding arrangement whereby funds for the organization are not dependent upon any single source who may withdraw support. Both organizers from outside the community and local volunteers play an important role with efforts directed toward strong local grass-roots organizing efforts. Leadership development is also a critical function of the Alinsky organizations. Since Alinsky organizations are multi-issue focused, a constant attempt is made to generate social problems and involve people. Single issue community organizations, according to Alinsky, will sooner or later die or lose their significance as the times change.

Tangible evidence of the success of Alinsky style organizations include major landlord-tennant agreements, economic job programs and a variety of local community improvement projects. As a study of Alinsky organizations by Bailey concludes, "the surprising aspect of Alinsky organizations is not their radicalness but their conventionality."

What Others Say. . .

"An Alinsky organization is a vehicle well suited to the needs of persons seeking to actualize a diverse set of community related values. The multi-issue orientation of such an organization permits activists simultaneously to seek actualization of several conditions."

Bailey

". . .he may have contributed far more richly to the education of grassroots Americans than have any number of superintendents of schools, not to mention a still greater superfluity of professors of education. Alinsky accomplished this remarkable feat by teaching everyday citizens how and for what purposes to learn together as they worked together."

Brameld

Key References

Alinsky, Saul D. *Reveille for Radicals*, New York: Random House, Vintage Books, 1969.

Alinsky, Saul D. *Rules for Radicals*, New York: Random House, 1971.

Bailey, Robert. *Radicals in Urban Politics: The Alinsky Approach*, Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1974.

Industrial Areas Foundation, Saul D. Alinsky Training Institute, 528 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago, Illinois 60611.

Rose, Stephen C. "Saul Alinsky and His Critics," *Christianity and Crisis*, (July 20, 1964).

CHARRETTES

Charrette??? If you've never heard of one you needn't feel alone. At various times the charrette has been described as a "process of community planning," "a vehicle for citizens' participation" and a "technique for studying and resolving educational facility problems." It is in essence a community planning workshop generally designed around the construction of public facilities.

The concept originated in Paris in the 1800's where architecture students once used a two-wheeled cart, *la charrette*, to transport their drawings to a faculty jury, often working feverishly on the way to complete their designs. Today's charrette is basically a community planning process designed to arrive at implementable plans and solutions to community concerns in a very short time period. As a citizen participation technique, the charrette approach requires: (1) a majority of the planning participants to be community residents; (2) matters relative to the solution of problems are discussed in forums and open public meetings with the presence of decision-makers; (3) participation of professionals as resource personnel; and (4) a short intensive time period (anywhere from three days to two weeks) for the charrette activity or happening. Charrettes have been conducted in such places as Baltimore, Maryland, Des Moines, Iowa, and York, Pennsylvania.

The design of a charrette is based upon the variety of people involved, the amount of time scheduled for activities and the actual planned schedule. The entire process focuses upon a sequence of events designed around (1) discovery of ideas and problems, (2) consolidation, refinement and priority setting, (3) proposal development and (4) implementation plans which can be tested. Because it is a dynamic process, the design is flexible and much of the daily activity is planned after the actual process is in operation.

The charrette is designed around dominant community participation. Representatives of agencies and government assume a listening and resource role unheard of in most planning approaches. A supportive staff of group facilitators, graphic illustrators, recorders, consultants and a charrette coordinator or manager are also key participants.

The design of a charrette actually includes three developmental phases including (1) initial pre-charrette planning, (2) the charrette happening and (3) post charrette follow up. Use of the charrette has served not only as an initial vehicle for facility construction but as a means to further identification of other avenues for community participation extending over a longer time framework.

What Others Say. . .

"The charrette was a beginning in the development of potential partnerships within the communities and between the communities and the institutions which serve them."

Des Moines Charrette

"Six months ago I'd never heard of a charrette and now I find myself totally committed to it."

School Superintendent

Key Resources

"Charrette," Washington, D.C.: Government Printing Office, No. 882-255, no date.

Kohn, Sherwood D., "Experiment in Planning an Urban High School: The Baltimore Charrette," Educational Facilities Lab., 477 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Link, Charles and Brubaker, Donald, "Charrette '71: How a Community Planned Two Inner City Schools," Office of School-Community Relations, Des Moines Public Schools, 1800 Grand, Des Moines, Iowa 50307.

Riddick, W., *Charrette Processes: A Tool in Urban Planning*, York, Pa.: Shumway Publishing, 1971.

CITIZEN ADVISORY COMMITTEES

Behind every public organization, agency or federal program is likely to be a citizen advisory committee. Many federal and state programs mandate such committees. Advisory committees appear to be in vogue during the 1970's.

Perhaps the most basic "ground rule" for advisory committees is just that—the committee is only advisory unless other responsibilities are specifically agreed upon by the sponsoring agency or program. Some advisory committees, such as parent advisory committees formed in response to Title I, ESEA, can legally exercise more clout than others.

The range of activities undertaken by committees is quite limitless. Committees have focused upon building programs, transportation, community centers, decentralization, adult education, finances, sex education, delinquency problems, integration, mental health, boundaries, human relations, dog control and countless other areas. The size, composition, selection procedure, length of duration and frequency of meeting times likewise vary in accordance with a variety of local conditions.

Critical factors in the success of committees include a clear understanding of purpose, good open communications with the sponsoring agency or organization, specific task assignments, constant in-service training opportunities and good internal human relations between contributing committee members.

While citizen advisory committees are often thought to serve local programs, state and federal agencies likewise make wide use of them. In Ohio, for example, a campaign entitled "Search for Consensus" involved a four-phase process, including twelve regional assemblies and a final fourth phase which brought 1,500 persons to the state capital for a full day of discussion on educational issues. The extension service and forest service have long utilized local advisory committees to provide input into program operations and planning.

Several committees have performed some rather unique roles, including advocacy, formal grievance procedures and the specific ombudsman role of dealing with complaints and criticism. Other more traditional roles include recommending policy, long and short-term planning, specific problem-solving, evaluation, communication, public relations, resource identification and program monitoring. Often overlooked is the relationship of the advisory committee to other groups and committees in the community.

What Others Say . . .

"As a total body, they share a basic knowledge of the scope and extent of community problems that is not possessed by any one administrator or educational decision-making body."

LeTarte

"Advisory committees can help counter attacks by isolated groups or extremists and blunt the impact of a vocal few with an ax to grind."

National School Public Relations Association

Key Resources

A Guide for Community School Advisory Councils, San Diego: California Center for Community Education Development, Dept. of Education, San Diego County, 6401 Linda Vista Road, San Diego California 92117.

Citizens Advisory Committees, National School Public Relations Association, 1801 N. Moore Street, Arlington, Virginia 22209 (1973).

Davies, Don, *Citizen Participation in Education: An Annotated Bibliography*, New Haven, Conn., Institute for Responsive Education, 1974.

Hunt, Gerard J., *A Guide for the Formation and Effective Functioning of Citizen Health and Mental Health Advisory Groups*, Community Mental Health Studies, Maryland State Department of Health and Mental Hygiene, 1973.

National Committee for Citizens in Education, 410 Wilde Lake Village Green, Columbia, Maryland 21044.

Phipps, Lloyd J. and Jackson, Franklin D., *An Annotated Bibliography of the Literature on Citizens Advisory Councils and Committees*, Rurban Education Development Laboratory, University of Illinois at Urbana, 357 Education Building, Urbana, Illinois 61901 (1973).

COMMUNITY AUDIO AND VIDEO ACCESS

Orsen Welles' historic broadcast on the "invasion from Mars" clearly signaled the power of media to impact people. Today's phenomenal growth in citizen band radios further illustrates the growing capacity of two-way electronic involvement of people. Telephones, radio, cable television, and a host of other electronic media forums have the capacity to involve people in new patterns of participation which presently have only touched the surface. Transforming one-way, service-oriented media into two-way involvement mechanisms is already well underway.

The extent to which various media forums can reach people is indeed vast. In Vancouver, B. C., community residents have utilized video taping to bring their complaints to the attention of city council members by actually recording the problem on tape and showing it at council meetings. Video recording is now being widely used as a technique to involve people in identifying and investigating local problems. Video projects on "images of the future" enable residents to participate in creating visions of the future and discussing these images with others. Many new town communities are becoming "wired communities" with two-way cable access available in every home. Several new town projects are developing two-way cable systems linking schools to other parts of the community for interaction and exchange. One report indicates the development of over one hundred services through the use of a multi-service cable communication system.

A radio program entitled "Call for Action" has proved to be one of the most effective radio ombudsmen in North America. Media referendums, television push-button response systems, telethones, tele-lectures, conference calls, newspaper ballots, radio call-in talk programs, and a host of other vehicles are presently being utilized to link people with people. Two way media forms are now used to feedback viewpoints, develop issue and problem awareness, link people with resources and develop common goals.

One school, as an illustration, utilized its own media to involve people in curriculum planning in the following ways: (1) the school newspaper was used to solicit ideas from parents and students on possible course offerings; (2) the video tape equipment was used to develop sample one-minute programs of proposed offerings; (3) the newspaper was again utilized to detail course offerings; (4) a curriculum fair was held to show the video tapes, answer questions and register students.

Such forms of "electronic involvement" are quickly developing on the horizon. However, actual participation becomes the critical issue rather than potential access. Furthermore, the medium itself will help determine the participation approaches as McLuhan has so noted.

What Others Say . . .

"Societies have always been shaped more by the nature of the media by which men communicate than be the content of the communication."

McLuhan

"The impact for those who have access to two-way cable television could be to reduce the need for trips to work, school and shopping by as much as 50% by 1985."

Innovations in New Communities

Key Resources

Cable Television Information Center, The Urban Institute, 2100 M. Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20037.

Center for Understanding Media, 75 Horatio Street, New York, N. Y. 10014.

Challenge for Change, National Film Board of Canada, P.O. Box 6100, Montreal, Quebec Canada, H3C 3H5.

Clinchy, Evans and Cody, Elizabeth, *Cables, Cameras and Schools*, Education in New Communities Project, Educational Facilities Lab, 477 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10022.

Stevens, Chandler H., et. al., *Feedback: An Involvement Primer*, Troy, New York: Rensselaer Polytechnic Institute, 1974.

Washington Community Video Center, Inc., P. O. Box 21068, Washington, D. C. 20009.

COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT CORPORATIONS

Community development corporations provide a legal structure from which to further involve community residents at the neighborhood level in a variety of economic and social development activities. Their primary purpose is not to return an investment to private stockholders as a private corporation might do, but rather to expand employment, income, ownership and improve the quality of life in the neighborhood. Community development corporations, for example, are created and controlled by people living in the area for the purpose of planning, stimulating, financing, and when necessary, owning and operating businesses that will provide such employment and further improve the local neighborhood. They thus share in common (1) economic development, (2) local control and (3) social goals.

Most community development corporations have both a profit and non-profit arm in the structure of the organization. A variety of differing structures exist with regard to the composition of the governing boards including (1) self-selected boards, (2) assembly-selected boards and (3) stockholder-selected boards. Examples of community development corporations include: Bedford Stuyvesant Restoration Corp., Hough Area Development Corp. (Cleveland), Operation Bootstrap (Los Angeles), FIGHT (Rochester, N. Y.), East Los Angeles Community Union and United Durham, Inc. (Durham, N. C.).

Community development corporations have demonstrated potential in (1) dealing with businesses and governmental bodies outside the neighborhood; (2) pooling scarce resources within the neighborhood; (3) providing managerial and entrepreneurial opportunities; (4) planning and implementing a broad range of business, housing and training programs; (5) organizing community support for long-term economic development projects and (6) attracting educated and talented members of minority groups into the neighborhoods to help solve problems. They also appear to be more responsive and flexible to local needs and conditions than organizations designed by the federal government.

The corporations are compatible with and reinforce the efforts of individual entrepreneurs and outside investors. Their goals of independent economic power also provide them with the potential of becoming politically much more influential over the long term than many other citizen vehicles. Community development corporations as a result sponsor both long and short term business opportunities.

While the specific programs and actions vary from corporation to corporation, all such corporations share in common the following objectives: (1) catalyzing the neighborhood economy; (2) providing training; (3) providing equity capital; (4) gaining a degree of community control and (5) developing self-sufficiency. In 1971 the Twentieth Century Fund estimated about seventy-five such corporations were in operation. Their numbers continue to grow.

What Others Say . . .

"Realistic investment in community economic development can result in terms of reduced expenditures for welfare, crime prevention, antipoverty programs and compensatory programs of all kinds."
Twentieth Century Fund

"If CDC's are not a panacea for solving the problems of the ghetto, they still may be the most promising approach to providing real economic opportunities for people in the inner city."
Twentieth Century Fund

Key Resources

Ford Foundation, *Community Development Corporation: A Strategy for Depressed Urban and Rural Areas*, Ford Foundation, 320 E. 43 St., New York, N. Y. 10017 (1973).

Garn, Harvey, et. al., *Evaluating Community Development Corporations: A Summary Report*, Washington: Urban Institute, 1976.

Kotler, Milton, "The Neighborhood Corporation," in *Urban America: Goals and Problems*, Washington, D. C.: U. S. Government Printing Office, 1967.

Institute for Neighborhood Studies, 1901 Que Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20009.

National Congress for Community Economic Development, 1126 16th Street, N.W., Washington, D.C. 20036.

The Twentieth Century Fund, *CDC's: New Hope for the Inner City*, New York: Twentieth Century Fund, 1971.

COMMUNITY RESOURCE/INFORMATION CENTERS

A community resource center is composed of a place, information and people interacting. The place may be a church, a storefront, a school or any number of other possibilities. The information may be about various agency services, local community or neighborhood meetings, people needing housing, people wanting to sell houses, or other information of interest to people. The center is also people interacting. Old people, students, poor people, business people, those who belong to organizations, those who don't. People meeting new people, people sharing concerns and problems, people laughing and getting in touch with what's going on and people organizing to get something done.

Community resource centers are an opportunity for people to learn how to help and serve themselves. The extent and variety of information exchanged vary somewhat from information and referral centers which may place a high emphasis on referral to service agencies and programs. The center serves as a central place to channel requests, share information and keep in touch with various neighborhood events. It is thus clearly community rather than institutional oriented.

Community resource centers need to develop a capacity of storing and retrieving information. Use of computers and other technology are likely to play an important role in the future of many centers. Information exchange, community dialogue and coalition building are basic functions which the National Self-Help Resource Center has noted as key to center operations. The center is both a hub of disseminating and soliciting information through the active participation of community residents at the neighborhood level.

The idea of community resource centers is still rather new. A national network of women's groups formed a task force to work on the creation of the idea and encourage the active involvement of women in community decision-making. Possible contributing members include: labor unions, local neighborhood associations, community schools, the local media, business and industry, service and civic organizations, public libraries, religious groups, cultural organizations or any number of other interest groups. Indeed, the community resource center can become a source of linking and communicating the various community involvement mechanisms mentioned in this booklet. The American Revolution Bicentennial Administration, two years ago, awarded funds to help identify and aid in the creation of ten such model centers around the country. Demonstration sites include such diverse communities as Anchorage, Alaska; Atlanta, Georgia; Portland, Oregon; Rawlins, Wyoming; Providence, Rhode Island; and Morganton, North Carolina.

What Others Say . . .

". . . there is evidence that people closer to serve get more service."

Kahn

"A community resource center is a place to exchange information, develop community dialogue and build coalitions to resolve community problems. It's not the functions that are different–it is the idea of putting them all together."

National Self-Help Resource Center, Inc.

Key Resources

Davis, Susan A., *Community Resource Centers: The Note Book*, The National Self-Help Resource Center, Inc., 1800 Wisconsin Avenue, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20007.

How Do You Start a Neighborhood Center? Seven Steps, National Federation of Settlements and Neighborhood Center, 232 Madison Avenue, New York, N. Y. 10016.

Kahn, Alfred J., "Service Delivery at the Neighborhood Level: Experience, Theory, and Fads," *Social Service Review* (March 1976).

Turick, Dorothy, *The Neighborhood Information Center*, National Center for Voluntary Action, 1785 Mass. Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C. 20036.

COMMUNITY SCHOOLS

The community school transforms the traditional role of the neighborhood school into that of a total community center. It provides a wide range of educational, social, recreational, cultural and community problem-solving opportunities without restriction as to the people to be served, facilities to be utilized or time of day. Community school operations are a part of a larger, growing educational field known as community education.

With over 5,000 community schools now in operation in the United States and elsewhere, citizen participation has become an integral part of the daily operational procedures. Advisory committees, use of community volunteers to teach classes and specialized action projects have all become a part of a developmental approach which places a high emphasis on leadership initiative from the public school. Specialized community school coordinators or directors serve in the capacity of facilitating interagency relationships and programs, mobilizing local community residents in problem solving, linking community resources to the school curriculum and performing various administrative functions and duties.

Community schools place a high emphasis upon the contributing roles of both professionals and lay people alike. Value is placed upon both the development of local programs and the process of individual and group development which contributes to community development. The school is used as a base for the creation of community unity, leadership development, needs assessment approaches and resource utilization. Community schools have served as a stimulant for the formation of volunteer fire departments, food cooperatives, community gardens, nutrition programs, neighborhood associations, day care and senior citizen centers and many others.

By means of organizing at the school attendance level, community involvement is deemed small enough to encourage local citizen participation. School facilities are utilized to a higher degree and programs and services can be delivered in a decentralized manner.

Several states and federal legislation now provide funding to assist local communities and schools in implementing community schools. A network of extensive community education centers are also in existence to provide technical assistance, training and dissemination information.

What Others Say . . .

"It is a concept in the best traditions of our nation and should have the support of us all. We must regard the school as more than a classroom. It is a vital and integral part of our community life."

Frank Church

"The possibilities for using a community school to your own and your community's advantage are limited only by the limits of your imaginations, which could mean they are limitless."

Sylvia Porter

Key Resources

Charles S. Mott Foundation, Mott Foundation Building, Flint, Michigan 48502.

Hiemstra, Roger, *The Educative Community*, Lincoln, Nebraska: Professional Educators Publications, 1972.

Minzey, Jack D. and LeTarte, Clyde E., *Community Education: From Program to Process*, Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing Co., 1972.

Seay, Maurice F. and Associates, *Community Education: A Developing Concept*, Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing Co., 1974.

National Community Education Association, 1017 Avon Street, Flint, Michigan 48503.

Community Education Program, USOE, ROB # 3, 7th and D. St., S.W., Washington, D. C. 20202.

NEIGHBORHOOD ASSOCIATION AND COUNCILS

The mid 1970's have seen a rise in the number of groups and organizations which identify with citizen participation at the neighborhood level. Neighborhood associations and councils appear to be one major forum in which such involvement is on the increase.

Associations generally have identified geographical boundaries and may or may not be associated with a sponsoring organization, such as city government. Associations may initially develop with a service orientation and often expand into political negotiations and action. Organizations which have proven most effective employ a variety of strategies and maintain a degree of flexibility depending upon the issues at hand. The actual degree of organizational structure and sophistication varies widely.

Critical to the success of most organizations is the initial ability to undertake special interest projects which attract a core group of people and lead to initial success. Longer range requirements include a variety of provisions of sustained member contributions and the ability to gain recognition as a legitimate representative of the neighborhood. Associations and councils concerned with issues and problems that transcend the local community develop coalitions or alliances with other groups since the changes sought require broader based support.

Associations commonly deal with issues such as zoning, police protection and crime control, traffic patterns, neighborhood parks beautification, street lighting, neighborhood communication, etc. The purposes of organizing at the neighborhood level usually include: (1) having an impact on the extent and form of services; (2) creating an awareness of public issues and techniques for dealing with them; (3) stimulating the larger community to act to meet the needs of the neighborhood; (4) instituting new patterns of cooperation and social controls within the neighborhood and (5) building a sense of community for those who participate.

An excellent example of municipal-neighborhood association cooperation can be found in Independence, Missouri. The plan includes: (1) neighborhood councils; (2) citizen advisory councils composed of representatives from the neighborhood councils; (3) citizen committees which act in an advisory capacity for every department in the city and (4) citizen workshops and assemblies. Other examples can be found in Anchorage, Alaska; Eugene, Oregon; Washington, D. C.; Rochester, New York and North Philadelphia. A network called "the Alliance for Neighborhood Government" was started in 1975 to act as a forum to bring together representatives of neighborhood associations, particularly on the eastern coast. In 1976 the third national conference attracted representatives from fifty-two neighborhoods. Workshop sessions focused upon economic self-reliance, community technology, alternative model organizations, organizing techniques, funding neighborhood programs and actions to fight crime.

What Others Say . . .

". . .we must start thinking in neighborhood terms as well as national terms about the relationship between government and neighborhoods."

Hubert Humphrey

"Cities have alot of dedicated, incompetent people. Neighborhood councils teach them to be dedicated and competent."

Clergyman Activist

Key Resources

Alliance for Neighborhood Government, 226 E. Capitol Street, Washington, D. C. 20003.

Independence Neighborhood Councils, P.O. Box 407, Independence, Missouri 64051.

Institute for Neighborhood Studies, 1901 Que Street, N.W., Washington, D. C. 20009.

Kotler, Milton, *Neighborhood Government: The Local Foundations of Political Life*, Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill, 1969.

Morris, Davis and Hess, Karl, *Neighborhood Power: The New Localism*, Boston: Beacon Press, 1975.

PARENT INVOLVEMENT COUNCILS

"Parent Power" and "Parents Are People Too" are more than mere slogans appearing on buttons and bumper stickers. Parent involvement is emerging through a variety of vehicles extending well beyond parent-teacher associations. The reasons for a rise in parent participation include increasing state and federal mandates requiring such involvement, a rise in parent consumerism, a growth in the social service sector of our governments and a host of specialized, local factors. For example, in a survey conducted by the Center for the Study of Parent Involvement in 1973, fourteen states indicated the existence of legislation demanding or recommending some form of parent involvement.

A distinct difference of parent involvement from many other participation approaches is the potential impact upon the family as a social unit. Parent involvement is thus not only concerned with the broader organizational and institutional reform issues of agencies and communities but also on a very small scale of how one can become a better parent and contribute to the growth of children.

Parent councils are well recognized in the fields of education, social welfare and mental health. Federal programs, such as the Right to Read, Follow Through, Bilingual/Bicultural and ESEA Title I, provide a large number of opportunities for parent participation in education alone. Single parent families and families with handicapped children have also given rise to other forms of involvement, such as those discussed in the self-support section of this publication. Parent involvement indeed means different things to different people.

Within the educational field, Diane Adams has noted a variety of levels of involvement which include parents as: (1) tutors, (2) paid employees, (3) decision makers, (4) adult education participants and (5) re-investors in other segments of community life. Increased parent involvement in education has also brought with it a rise in the need for in-service programs for administrators, teachers and parents, such as conducted by the Home and School Institute and other specialized centers. Stearns has demonstrated the chain of impact of parent involvement to extend from home environment changes, to parental self-image changes, through program adaptation to broader community understandings. Parent involvement thus not only benefits the growth of children and parents but administrators, teachers and the rest of us as well.

Action examples of parent involvement are beginning to receive more needed attention and widespread publication. *Schools Where Parents Make a Difference*, edited by Don Davies, contains eleven case studies selected from hundreds of examples by the staff of the Institute for Responsive Education. The nearest example is likely to be found in your own neighborhood block or community.

What Others Say . . .

"Parents and educational programs for their children must be involved with each other. For it is with each other that parents and educators can address the crucial issues of both child development and community development."

Safran

"I really enjoyed being on the parent council because that was the first time I really spoke out and felt comfortable and had the self-confidence to talk to a group. I didn't feel anyone was using me as an outcast.'

Parent Participant

Key Resources

Adams, Diane, "Parent Involvement: Parent Development," Center for the Study of Parent Involvement, 2544 Etna Street, Berkeley, California 94704.

The Home and School Institute, Trinity College, Washington, D. C. 20017.

Institute for Responsive Education, 704 Commonwealth Ave., Boston, Mass. 02215.

Lurie, Ellen, *How to Change the Schools*, New York: Random House, Inc., 1970.

Stearns, Marianne Sherman and Peterson, Susan, *Parent Involvement in Compensatory Education Programs*, Office of Planning, Budgeting and Evaluation, U. S. Office of Education, Washington, D. C., 1973.

Wilson, Gary B., *Parents and Teachers*, Humanics, 881 Peachtree St., N.E., Atlanta, Georgia 30309 (1974).

SELF-HELP GROUPS

Addicts Anonymous. . . Alcoholics Anonymous. . . Rare Blood Club. . . Emphysema Anonymous. . . Mended Hearts. . . Widows Anonymous. . . National Welfare Rights Organization . . . Carolina Brown Lung. . . Parents Anonymous. . . Delancy Street Foundation. . . Society for the Rehabilitation for the Facially Disfigured. . . .

These are just a few of the growing number of self-help groups experiencing a phenomenal growth as an alternative form of citizen involvement around specialized interest areas. There are, for example, over 1,200 women's groups in the United States which identify themselves as part of the women's health movement. An estimated one half million self-help groups are in the United States alone. Many such groups often arise to provide services which are otherwise unavailable, or which professional caregiving systems have not yet addressed.

Characteristics of self-help groups include: common experience of members; mutual help and support; importance of sharing information; action toward shared goals and the helper principle in which each contributes to the development of others and in turn grows. While professionals may serve in a resource capacity, most self-help groups challenge the assumption that the professional is the key to their own survival and development. At the basic root, self-help groups challenge and often considerably modify the traditional professional role.

Self-help groups have organized to take such action as: support a generic drug bill which passed a state legislature; halt utility rate hikes; stop construction of shopping centers; organize rent strikes; reform welfare legislation; establish alternative services and institutions: undertake leadership development workshops and a host of other actions. Over seventy different kinds of self-help groups have been identified within the health field alone.

Self-help groups depend upon their members commitment for survival. Help is generally voluntary in nature with the size of the organization and its level of sophistication and purpose varying widely. Such groups have been seen as an alternative caregiving system, an expression of democratic ideas, a subculture, an influence group, a therapeutic method, a social movement and a vehicle to aid in coping with life-cycle transitions.

Many self-help groups operate within the framework of a "small is beautiful" feeling, emphasizing the importance of human relations and human service on a small scale, personal level. They are largely self-governing and self-regulating and emphasize peer solidarity rather than hierarchical governance. The client or peer as a resource also makes self-help groups a potentially powerful source beyond existing financial constraints in the human service field.

What Others Say . . .

"Self-help groups offer a setting in which a broad range of self-management skills are exchanged by members. Such skills include those helpful for managing medical condition and family and work life. In addition, members share problems encountered in dealings with social service agencies, and strategies for managing this aspect of their illness career. Much of the information exchanged in such groups is not readily available elsewhere."

Kleeman & DePree

"A most important function is the provision of role models for new members."

Silverman

Key Resources

Caplin, Gerald and Killilea, Marie (editors), *Support Systems and Mutual Help: Multidisciplinary Explorations,* New York: Grune & Stratton, 1976.

Center for Urban Affairs, Northwestern University, 2040 Sheridan Road, Evanston, Illinois 60201.

The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science, Special Issue on Self-Help Groups, Summer, 1976 (no. 1203).

National Self-Help Clearinghouse, 184 Fifth Avenue, New York, N. Y.

Social Policy, Special Self-Help Issue, September/October 1976.

USERS CONSULTATION PROCESSES

The idea of involving the user of services in the design of services is not new. However, the level of sophistication in the design of such involvement opportunities is ever increasing. The charrette process explained earlier in this booklet is just one such example. Professionals in the field of architecture and urban planning are increasingly turning to such design processes in their respective fields.

A most extensive participatory process was conducted in the redesign of the central downtown area of Washington, D. C. involving the users of the central city themselves. Over a period of ten weeks, thirteen different "user-consultant groups" participated in identifying the strengths and weaknesses of the core downtown area along with actually developing proposals for further improvement. The groups were composed of shoppers, workers, teenagers, bankers/businessmen, entertainment seekers and others who frequented the area under consideration for redesign and upgrading. Diversity of user populations was secured with each group designed for a high degree of homogeneity to allow for similarity and convergence of views typical of the user groups. Users were involved intensively for ten sessions in techniques of: (1) photo taking and analysis; (2) goal development; (3) sharing of potential visions of the future; (4) issue development; and (5) feedback sessions with the design staff and other user consultation groups. A trained staff of architecture professionals worked with these groups in arriving at plans that were submitted to the District of Columbia Redevelopment Land Agency.

Other involvement approaches have included: (1) the street interviews for the design of a Dallas, Texas sign ordinance; (2) redesign of the central station in a transit system in Boston with the involvement of users; and (3) student involvement in design of student residence which provided for a diversity of life-styles in a village-like atmosphere. Each design process includes a sharing of ideas, awareness building, solution generation, establishing priorities and linking the proposals to decision-makers for reaction and results.

The length of life of such processes varies according to a variety of factors including time, money, purpose and the mandate of scope of involvement. The design of such involvement vehicles is specific in nature and includes first an "opening up" of idea possibilities and then a "closing down" to reach agreement on decisions that can lead to action. One or more trained group facilitators normally works with participants and architects, planners and the sponsoring agency, business or organization. Such approaches extend well beyond the public hearings and community surveys traditionally relied upon for citizen impact.

What Others Say . . .

". . .the outreach of the planning group must reach up to the suppliers, including links to all decision makers, and down to the range of users that a service has."

Krauss

"Users dialogue with professionals and decision-makers results in more realistic needs statements, informed by understanding of costs and other constraints."

Environmental Design Group, Inc.

Key Resources

Environmental Design Group, Inc., 14 Arrow Street, Cambridge, Mass. 02138.

Krauss, Richard, et. al., *Planning Groups in the Political Arena*, Cambridge, Mass.: Environmental Design Group, 1974.

Progressive Architecture, December 1976.

Robinson, Gerald, *User Consultation Process*, Washington, D.C.: District of Columbia Redevelopment Land Agency, 1973.

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STILL OTHER VEHICLES

ACTION RESEARCH. Investigating specific issues or problems has long been a means to further involve people. Gathering facts, interviewing people, reviewing policy guidelines and looking behind the scenes have all been specific tactics utilized by action research groups. Nader's Raiders is one excellent example.

BLOCK CLUBS. An informal and small-scale participation vehicle is the block club. Groups normally hold informal meetings at members' homes. Block clubs enable people to raise specific issues immediate to the neighborhood and also provide a means of informally socializing. Clubs can aiso be linked in a network to form neighborhood associations or Alinsky style organizations.

COMMUNITY CONGRESS. The congress is a specific community wide participation technique developed by utility companies on the west coast. It entails community-wide exploration of local problems through a format of large meetings and includes an audio-video perspective on the community developed by a person from outside the community. A special session entitled a "stranger comes to town" helps crystalize many issues and problems and can lead to a variety of discussions and action plans.

COMMUNITY COOPERATIVES. Whatever problem or concern you can think of there is probably a community cooperative somewhere attempting to deal with it. Employment, day care, foodbuying, transporation, neighborhood gardening tools, and senior citizen medical services are all examples of people joining together on a cooperative basis to meet some need or concern. Cooperatives have a strong tradition in American society and many may operate in a rather informal fashion while others are large and complex.

COMMUNITY GAMES AND SIMULATIONS. These participation vehicles are normally short term in nature and are somewhat structured. They add a different dimension to involvement that often times enables participants to try out new behavior or look at a problem from a different perspective. These techniques have been widely used in new town development, land use and urban development, community education and adult education.

COMMUNITY LEADERSHIP DEVELOPMENT WORKSHOPS. They may be sponsored by one organization or a cooperative undertaking of several agencies or neighborhood groups. Focus is primarily upon skill development and human relations training along with a means for focusing upon specific leadership techniques and approaches. Workshops vary in length, purpose, structure and other factors.

GOAL DEVELOPMENT TECHNIQUES. Annual community-wide goal setting sessions have been widely conducted around the country. The sponsor may be city government, the public schools, a civic-minded organization or any number of other possibilities. The specific techniques may vary in length and format but most are designed to arrive at a consensus of widely held goals as a means to further planning for agencies and organizations.

HOMEOWNERS ASSOCIATIONS. This particular approach is common among new towns and suburban neighborhoods which have been developed by a particular developer. The homeowners meet with representatives of the developer periodically to discuss common concerns, raise issues and express opinions. The association is one form of a quasi-government approach which must often deal with many of the very same issues that normallly elected officials would address.

PROBLEM SOLVING CONFERENCES. Special workshops or conferences have been convened to deal with particular community or neighborhood problems. The focus of such conferences centers around understanding the problem better, exploring the variety of action possibilities and finally arriving at a series of implementable plans to address the problem. Longer term citizen participation vehicles may be created or emerge from this specialized approach.

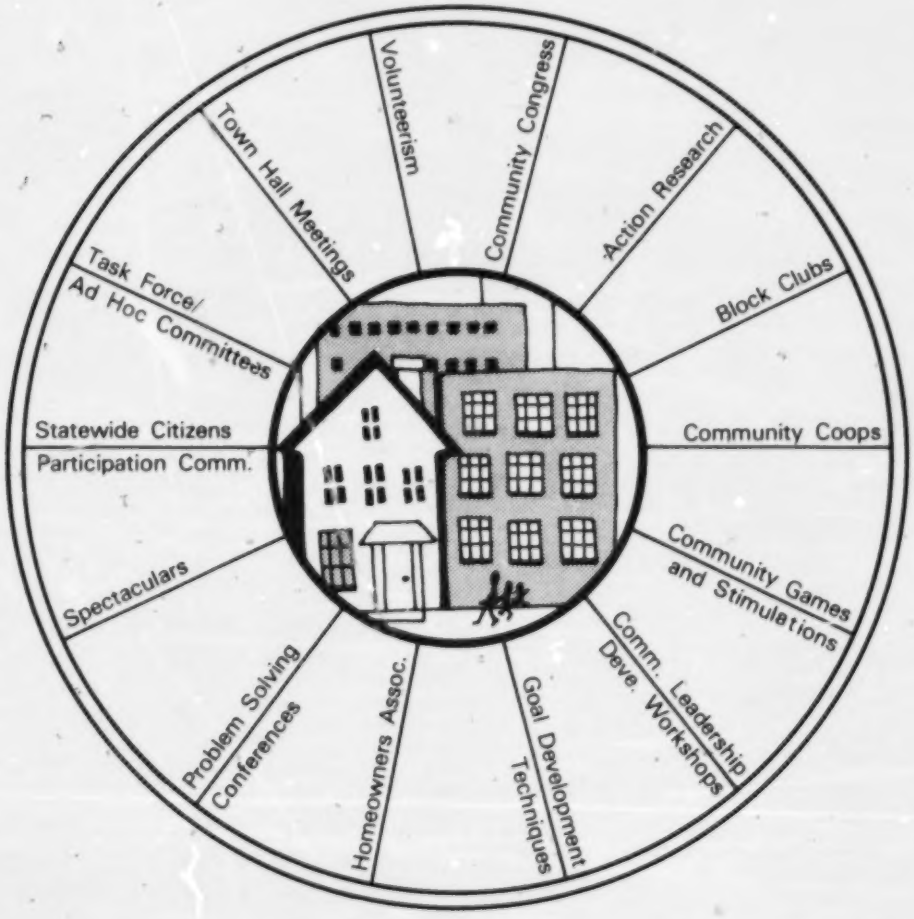
SPECTACULARS. These are high visibility community-wide events designed to strengthen community unity, build pride and have fun in the process. They are normally one time events or become annual community affairs. Community festivals, special athletic events, celebration days, cross-town and/or inter-community events are just a few examples.

STATEWIDE CITIZENS PARTICIPATION COMMITTEES. States, such as Alaska, have pioneered ways to bring people from home communities closer to statewide government and the legislative process. Conferences composed primarily of low-income residents are designed to put people in contact with key state decision makers. Participants identify key issues of focus, adopt resolutions and lobby for the development or passage of specific bills related to those issue areas.

TASK FORCE/AD HOC COMMITTEES. These participation processes are normally short term in nature and are designed with a specific action focus. Like all other committees, the actual size, composition and sponsoring source vary. They represent one of the most common ways for addressing specific issues.

TOWN HALL MEETINGS. This process has long been associated with the founding of this country and still survives in many parts of the country. It enables citizens to hold a rather large gathering for the purposes of discovering common problems and issues. It further provides a sense of community and opportunity to hear a variety of viewpoints on the local issues at hand.

VOLUNTEERISM. The hallmark of most citizen participation is the opportunity to volunteer in order to help. Many agencies and organizations now employ volunteer coordinators to link resource people with agency needs. Volunteering is one of the key ways in which all of us can participate and be involved.



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COMMUNITY INVOLVEMENT AND PARTICIPATION
What Researchers, Theorists and Practitioners Say . . .

Citizens participation does not mean the illusion of participation, the semblance of involvement, the opportunity to speak without being heard, the receipt of token benefits, or the enjoyment of stop-gap palliative measures. Participation means participation in every dimension of life, of culture, of our economy, our educational system, our political system, our decision-making processes. It means full enfranchisement with respect to the totality of society's activities.

Hans B. C. Spiegel (editor), *Citizen Participation in Urban Development*, Washington, D. C.: NTL Institute for Applied Behavioral Science, 1968, p. 223.

Democracy does not begin and end on the governmental level, even in neighborhoods. Political life can, and should, be extended into as many other areas; participation of residents in the adjudication process, in neighborhood courts; participation in planning decisions in local zoning commissions; participation in production decisions in work collectives.

David Morris and Karl Hess, *Neighborhood Power: The New Localism*, Boston: Beacon Press, 1975.

Citizen involvement includes inquiries, requests, opinions, complaints, advice, suggestions, and volunteer productive activity.

The Adolescent, Other Citizens, and Their High Schools, report of Task Force '74, Charles Kettering Foundation, New York: McGraw-Hill Co., 1975, p. 8.

The idea of citizen participation is a little like eating spinach; no one is against it in principle because it is good for you.

Edgar S. Cahn and Barry A. Passett (editors), *Citizen Participation*, Trenton, N. J.: New Jersey Community Action Training Institute, 1970, p. 337.

We can't afford to use community involvement as an issue by which the various educational and social problems are dumped off for solution by local leadership. The need is to educate all people for social action.

Roger Hiemstra, *The Educative Community*, Lincoln, Nebraska: Professional Educators Publications, 1972, p. 22.

Community involvement must be a joint undertaking and approached on the assumption that both lay citizens and professional educators have a unique and valuable contribution to make, and each, because of their uniqueness, cannot develop an adequate educational program without the other.

Jack D. Minzey and Clyde E. LeTarte, *Community Education: From Program to Process*, Midland, Michigan: Pendell Publishing Company, 1972, p. 9.

With participation, as with learning, we would do well to begin where people are.

Ronald F. Campbell and John A. Ramseyer, *The Dynamics of School-Community Relationships*, New York: Allyn and Beacon, Inc., 1955, p. 183.

People will not agree to form a group unless they believe that it will meet some need or serve some purpose of their own. . . . People will not continue to support a group unless it meets, and goes on meeting, some need or purpose of their own.

T. R. Batten, *The Human Factor in Community Work*, London: Oxford University Press, 1965, p. 88.

A People's Organization must be rooted in the people themselves: If a People's Organization were to be thought of as a tree, the indigenous leaders would be the roots and the people themselves the soil. To rest on the soil and be nourished by the soil, the tree must be deeply and well rooted.

Saul D. Alinsky, *Reveille for Radicals*, New York: Random House, Vintage Books (paperback), 1969, p. 64.

Most statutory and voluntary agencies limit the autonomy of the groups they sponsor and with which they work, and few are really interested in helping people to form autonomous groups to meet their own needs for themselves.

T. R. Batten, *The Non-Directive Approach in Group and Community Work*, London: Oxford University Press, 1967, p. 37.

If an advisory group is to fulfill its role over the years, it cannot allow itself to become a rubber stamp.

Biddle, William and Loureide, *The Community Development Process*, New York: Holt, Rinehart and Winston, 1965, p. 121.

Aspects of participation include what members do between meetings and what part they play during meetings.

Lee J. Cary (editor), *Community Development as a Process*, Columbia, Missouri: University of Missouri Press, 1970, p. 147.

Increased participation injects new and different interests into the political arena, requires development of experience and skills in conflict management and encourages more responsible performance by officials.

The Twentieth Century Fund, *New Towns: Laboratories for Democracy*, Report of the Twentieth Century Fund Task Force on Governance of New Towns, New York: Twentieth Century Fund, Inc., 1971, p. 60.

Administration and staff need training just as much as citizen participants do. They need training in how to relate to citizen boards, to fear them less and to interact with them more openly and productively.

Roland L. Warren, "Citizen Participation" in *The Changing Mental Health Scene*, Ralph Hirschowitz and Bernard Levy (editors), New York: Spectrum Publications, 1976, p. 275.

Decentralization becomes a necessary corollary of participation. If there is one group which will unquestionably have to either carry a greater burden or relinquish significant amounts of influence under participation schemes, it will be the administrative authorities.

School and Community, Center for Educational Research and Innovation, Paris, France: Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development, 1975, p. 124.

The neighborhood citizen participation structure must have clear and direct access to the decision making process. . . so that neighborhood views can influence policy, planning and program decisions.

Federal Regulations and Advice, Department of Housing and Urban Development in Spiegel, *op. cit.*, p. 30.

The right to influence decision-making is complicated by the necessity of delegating that function to others—and equally by the fact that most important decisions are not necessarily made by governing boards and councils, but on a day-to-day level by staff.

Cahn and Passett, *op. cit.*, p. 49.

Citizen participation may take place through channels other than the formal provision for citizen boards in the organizational structure. It may be exercised from outside the organization, in a bargaining or negotiating situation in which mutual concessions are made between independent groups.

Warren, *op. cit.*, p. 272.

Participation cannot be created artificially. It involves feeling; it is more than asking or answering or joining in a discussion.

Ray Johns, *Confronting Organizational Change*, New York: Association Press, 1963, p. 105.

The kind and amount of participation desirable in a program can only be defined in terms of the specific program, the community in which it will be carried out and the stage of readiness of its population.

Cahn and Passett, *op. cit.*, p. 294.

Those who give time to the planning and to the making of responsible decisions will usually be less than five percent of the total residents of an area, at any one time.

Biddle, *op. cit.*, p. 73.

It is axiomatic that a single-issue organization won't last. An organization needs action as an individual needs oxygen.

Saul D. Alinsky, *Rules for Radicals*, New York: Random House, 1971, p. 77.

For citizen participation to have its full measure of impact on agency policies and programs, an organizational base independent of the agencies is necessary; for if participation is confined to the structure provided by the agencies, it will be fragmented into chunks the respective agencies can readily manage with but a minimum of adaptation.

Roland L. Warren, Stephen M. Rose, Ann F. Bergunder, *The Structure of Urban Reform*, Lexington, Mass.: D. C. Heath Company, 1974, p. 176.

Most people will not readily align themselves with a group they believe to be the pawn of other interests, even if they consider those interests to be friendly.

Cahn and Passett, *op. cit.*, p. 147.

In the conventional community council the frontiers, both in program and scope of activities, become increasingly limited. The room within the organization becomes more confined; officers become more entrenched in their decisions, and the program itself becomes routine and static. There are practically no outlets for the aggressions of the people within the organization. . . What happens in practice is that the people, not having the room in which to discharge their aggressions, must of necessity turn these aggressions inward upon the organization itself, resulting in feuds, hostilities, and a general collapse.

Alinsky, *Reveille, op. cit.*, p. 185.

The effectiveness of improvement efforts is enhanced when they take place under the following conditions: The efforts are planned (a) by the members themselves, (b) in response to needs which they identify from analysis of their organization, (c) under conditions of mutual trust and respect, and (d) where feedback concerning the effectiveness of their efforts is available.

Goodwin Watson (editor), *Concepts for Social Change*, Washington, D.C.: National Training Lab, 1967, p. 7.

The most important reason for supporting citizen participation may not be any of its alleged advantages, but it may simply be that there is pressure for such participation. . . Like equal opportunity programs, citizen participation programs are more or less a part of the mandate of the times, and each agency feels pressures toward presenting at least the appearance, if not the reality, of a lively participation.

Warren, *op. cit.*, p. 266.

The danger is that 'participation' and 'involvement' may become catch phrases rather than real solutions, a slogan for radicals and an empty vessel for the establishment.

Ray Lees, *Politics and Social Work*, London: Routledge and Kegan Paul, 1972, p. 75.

In the last analysis, the individual citizen has the right to participate in his own way. Some may prefer to join with teachers as volunteers or aides. Still others may wish to delegate most school responsibility to schoolmen. In each case, the individual makes his own decision, which is the key to school governance.

Mario D. Fantini, "Community Participation: Many Faces, Many Directions" in *Cities, Communities and the Young*, John Rayner & Jane Harden (editors), London: Open University Press, 1976, p. 190.

To give people help, while denying them a significant part in the action, contributes nothing to the development of the individual. In the deepest sense it is not giving but taking–taking their dignity. Denial of the opportunity for participation is the denial of human dignity and democracy. It will not work.

Alinsky, *Rules, op. cit.*, p. 123.

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This pamphlet has been designed for distribution to groups or individuals who would like some basic information about citizens' participation. Copies can be ordered in bulk quantity.

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A LIST OF CRITICAL QUESTIONS ON CITIZEN PARTICIPATION

1. What is the purpose(s) of the citizen participation effort and who determines such purposes?

2. Who is to be involved and what strategies or tactics are to be employed?

3. What are the limitations, if any, placed on such participation efforts?

4. What are the personal benefits to be derived by the participants themselves and the community in general?

5. What are the implied criteria of "successful participation" and who determines such criteria?

6. What resources are available to support such efforts?

7. How will the relative functions of both lay and professional be addressed?

8. If participation is to be linked to an agency or organization, where is it to be located in the organizational structure?

9. To what extent will the participants have access to decision-makers?

10. What local conditions or factors need to be considered relative to the participation efforts?

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- *Mid-Atlantic Community Education Consortium Informational Portfolio*
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